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# PERIODS OF SETS OF LENGTHS: A QUANTITATIVE RESULT AND AN ASSOCIATED INVERSE PROBLEM 

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#### Abstract

The investigation of quantitative aspects of non-unique factorizations in the ring of integers of an algebraic number field gives rise to combinatorial problems in the class group of this number field. In this paper we investigate the combinatorial problems related to the function $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)(x)$, counting elements whose sets of lengths have period $\mathcal{D}$, for extreme choices of $\mathcal{D}$. If the class group meets certain conditions, we obtain the value of an exponent in the asymptotic formula of this function and results that imply oscillations of an error term.


1. Introduction and main results. Let $K$ be an algebraic number field, $R$ its ring of integers, $H$ the monoid of non-zero principal ideals of $R$, and $G$ the ideal class group. Then every non-zero element of $R$ (or every element of $H$, respectively) is a product of finitely many irreducible elements (principal ideals, respectively), but such a factorization need not be unique (unless $G$ is trivial). In the sixties W. Narkiewicz initiated the investigation of quantitative aspects of non-unique factorizations in algebraic number fields. That is, one studies, for arithmetically interesting subsets $Z \subset H$, the asymptotic behavior of the associated counting function $Z(x)=|\{a \in Z:|a| \leq x\}|$ for $x$ tending to infinity. For an overview on known results see [20, Chapter 9], and [10, Chapter 9], and for recent contributions see, e.g., [1] and [24].

We start our discussion with a classical example, which is relevant for the investigations of this paper. Then we turn to the problem actually considered in this paper and formulate the main results.

Suppose that $|G| \geq 3$ and let $a \in H$. If $a=u_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot u_{l}$ is a factorization of $a$ into irreducible elements $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{l} \in H$, then $l$ is called the length of the factorization and $\mathrm{L}(a)=\left\{l \in \mathbb{N}_{0}: a\right.$ has a factorization of length $\left.l\right\} \subset \mathbb{N}_{0}$ denotes the set of lengths of $a$. Recall that $|G| \geq 3$ implies that for every $N \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists some $a \in H$ such that $|\mathrm{L}(a)| \geq N$. If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and

[^0]$\mathcal{G}_{k}=\mathcal{G}_{k}(H)=\{a \in H:|\mathrm{L}(a)| \leq k\}$, then
$$
\mathcal{G}_{k}(x) \sim C x(\log x)^{-1+\mu(G) /|G|}(\log \log x)^{\psi_{k}(G)},
$$
where $C$ is a positive real constant, and $\mu(G) \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\psi_{k}(G) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ depend only on $G$ and $k$ (see Subsection 2.2 for the precise definition of $\mu(G)$ and $\left.\psi_{k}(G)\right)$.

The function $\mathcal{G}_{k}(x)$ was introduced by W. Narkiewicz (see [18, Theorem III]) and the above result (with the combinatorial description of the exponents) was given by A. Geroldinger [6]. Although $\mathcal{G}_{k}(x)$ received a lot of attention in recent years (for an overview see [10, Chapter 9]), there are still many open questions around it. For example, even for cyclic groups the precise value of $\mu(G)$ is in general unknown (see [23]) and even less is known on $\psi_{k}(G)$ (see $[25,29]$ ). Yet, since it is known that $\mu(G)<|G|$ for $|G| \geq 3$, a simple consequence of the above formula is that the density of all elements $a \in H$ with $|\mathrm{L}(a)| \leq k$ is zero.

In the present paper we study counting functions that deal with arbitrarily long sets of lengths. Such counting functions were considered initially in [5, Proposition 10] and [6, Satz 2], and more recently in [10, Chapter 9]. By a result of A. Geroldinger [5] (see [9] or [10] for generalizations and refinements) it is known that sets of lengths have a certain structure. Namely, there exists some bound $M_{G} \in \mathbb{N}$, just depending on $G$, such that every set of lengths in $H$ is an almost arithmetical multiprogression (an AAMP for short) with some difference $d \in \Delta^{*}(G)$, period $\{0, d\} \subset \mathcal{D} \subset\{0, \ldots, d\}$ and bound $M_{G}$ (see Subsection 2.2 for a precise definition and see below and Subsection 2.1 for the definition of the set $\left.\Delta^{*}(G)\right)$.

Now fix some difference $d$, some period $\mathcal{D}$ and some bound $M$, and let $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)$ denote the set of all $a \in H$ for which the set of lengths $\mathrm{L}(a)$ is a long AAMP with difference $d$, period $\mathcal{D}$ and bound $M$ (in Subsection 2.2 we make the term "long" precise).

The present paper is devoted to the counting functions $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)(x)$. Theorem 1.1 gives their asymptotics, and Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 , which are the main results of the paper, deal with the exponents of $\log x$ and $\log \log x$ in the main term of the asymptotic formulas.

A weaker asymptotic formula, valid in the more general setting of abstract formations, for $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)(x)$ by A. Geroldinger and F. Halter-Koch can be found in [10, Theorem 9.4.10]. We restrict to the number field case. Thus, after showing that the sets $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)$ are arithmetical, we can directly apply the analytic results of J. Kaczorowski [15] and M. Radziejewski [24], building on results of J. Kaczorowski, A. Perelli, and J. Pintz (see $[16,17])$, to get the following result (for the short argument see Section 3).

ThEOREM 1.1. Let $R$ be the ring of integers of an algebraic number field $K, H$ the set of all non-zero principal ideal and $G$ the ideal class group
with $|G| \geq 3$. Let $M \in \mathbb{N}$ be sufficiently large, $d \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ and $\{0, d\} \subset$ $\mathcal{D} \subset\{0, \ldots, d\}$ be such that $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M) \neq \emptyset$. There exist $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G) \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G) \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, just depending on $G$ and $\mathcal{D}$, such that:
(1) For $x \geq e^{e}$,

$$
\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)(x)=x(\log x)^{-1+\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G) /|G|}\left(V_{\mathcal{D}}(\log \log x)+O\left(\frac{(\log \log x)^{m}}{(\log x)^{\gamma}}\right)\right)
$$

with $V_{D}$ a polynomial with positive leading coefficient and degree $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G), \gamma=(1 /|G|) \min \{1,1-\cos (2 \pi /|G|)\}$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$ depending on $\mathcal{D}$ and $K$.
(2) If $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)>0$, then the following error term is subject to oscillations of positive lower logarithmic frequency and size $x^{1 / 2-\varepsilon}$ :

$$
\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)(x)-\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{\mathcal{C}} \zeta(s, \mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)) \frac{x^{s}}{s} d s
$$

with $\zeta(s, \mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M))=\sum_{I \in \mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)}(R: I)^{-s}$ for $\Re(s)>1$, and the contour of integration $\mathcal{C}$ going counterclockwise around the points $1 / 2$ and 1.

The condition that $M$ is "sufficiently large" can be made more precise (see Subsection 2.2).

The main subject of this paper is the investigation of the constants $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ occurring in Theorem 1.1. In [10, Theorem 9.4.10] abstract combinatorial descriptions for $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ were obtained (see below and Subsection 2.2). Building on these descriptions, we derive explicit results in some special cases.

In [10, Theorem 9.4.10] the special case where $\mathcal{D}=\{0,1\}$ has been considered. In that case $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)$ is the set of all $a \in H$ whose sets of lengths are almost arithmetical progressions with difference 1. It is proved that $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)=|G|$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)=0$. Indeed, it is even known that the set $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)$ has density 1 (cf. [10, Theorem 9.4.11]).

Here, we consider sets of lengths that are almost arithmetical progressions (that is the case where $\mathcal{D}=\{0, d\}$ ); for simplicity we set $\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)=$ $\mathrm{a}_{\{0, d\}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)=\mathrm{b}_{\{0, d\}}(G)$.

The starting point for all investigations of the invariants $a_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ is the set (see Subsection 2.1 for definitions of $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ and the term "half-factorial")

$$
\Delta^{*}(G)=\left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right): G_{0} \subset G \text { is not half-factorial }\right\}
$$

which received a lot of attention in the recent literature (for an overview see [10, Section 6.8]). The structure of $\Delta^{*}(G)$ heavily depends on whether or not the exponent of $G$ is large in comparison with $|G|$ (see Section 4 for further discussion).

In [10, Theorem 9.4.10] it is proved that if $d \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ and no multiple of $d$ is in $\Delta^{*}(G)$, then

$$
\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)=\max \left\{\left|G_{0}\right|: G_{0} \subset G, \min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=d\right\} .
$$

Thus to determine $\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)$ we have to solve an inverse problem, in the sense of additive number theory. The combinatorial description of $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$ is more involved; we recall it in Subsection 2.2 after introducing more notation. To determine $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$ this inverse problem is relevant as well.

In particular, under the assumption that the exponent of $G$ is sufficiently large (this is made precise by supposing that the invariant $\mathrm{m}(G)$, see Definition 4.1, is small; for now we note that $4 \log |G| \leq \exp (G)$ is sufficient) we consider an extreme case, namely $d=\max \Delta^{*}(G)=\exp (G)-2$. In this case and the case $d=\exp (G)-3$, we solve the inverse problem, and derive the following formulas for $\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)$. (Note that the invariant $\mu(\cdot)$ in the results below is the same as the one appearing in the asymptotic formula for $\mathcal{G}_{k}(x)$.)

Theorem 1.2. Let $G=G^{\prime} \oplus C_{n}$ be a finite abelian group where $G^{\prime} \subset G$ is a subgroup and $\exp (G)=n$.
(1) If $n>m(G)+2$, then

$$
\mathrm{a}_{n-2}(G)= \begin{cases}3+\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right) & \text { if } n \text { is prime and } G \text { has even rank, } \\ 2+\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right) & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

(2) If $G^{\prime}=G^{\prime \prime} \oplus C_{n}$ for some subgroup $G^{\prime \prime} \subset G^{\prime}$ and $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$, then $\mathrm{a}_{n-3}(G)=3+\mu\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

We note that the condition that the exponent is large is essential (cf. Section 4 for further discussion).

Then we consider the question of positivity of $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$ and obtain the following result. (For the significance of this question cf. Theorem 1.1(2).)

Theorem 1.3. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\exp (G)=n$.
(1) If $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$, then $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)=0$ if and only if $G$ is cyclic.
(2) If $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$ and $n-3 \in \Delta^{*}(G)$, then $\mathrm{b}_{n-3}(G)>0$.

The result that $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)=0$ for all cyclic $G$ is quite surprising, since it is in contrast to results obtained for related counting functions (cf. [10, Chapter 9$]$ ). More precisely, for the counting functions $\mathcal{F}_{k}(x)$ and $\mathcal{B}_{k}(x)$, counting the number of elements with at most $k$ distinct and block-distinct factorizations respectively, it is known that the constants analogous to $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$, i.e., the exponents of $\log \log x$ in the leading term of the asymptotic formulas, are positive for any group $G$, apart from the exceptional cases $|G|=1$ and $|G| \leq 2$, respectively (see [19, Proposition 9$]$ and [8, Corollary 1]); moreover, for $\mathcal{G}_{k}(x)$ it was conjectured ([24, Conjecture]) that $\psi_{k}(G)$ is positive, apart
from the exceptional case $|G| \leq 2$, and this was proved for $k \geq 2$, and for $k=1$ for various types of groups (see [25]).

Yet, all these exceptions as well as the fact that $\mathrm{b}_{\{0,1\}}(G)=0$, mentioned above, are in a certain sense "obvious" exceptions. All relevant constants can be defined as the maximal length of sequences, in certain free monoids, satisfying an additional condition (cf. the definition of $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$ and $\psi_{k}(G)$ in Subsection 2.2), and in all those exceptional cases, in contrast to our case, the free monoids just contain the empty sequence, and the constants are 0 essentially by definition. Moreover, for $\mathcal{B}_{k}(x), \mathcal{F}_{k}(x)$, and $\mathcal{G}_{k}(x)$ the exceptional cases coincide with the degenerate cases that either every or no ideal is counted according as $k=1$ or $k>1$.
2. Notations and basic results. Our terminology is consistent with the monograph [10], to which we refer for a detailed discussion of the notions we briefly mention.

For integers $a, b$ we denote by $[a, b]$ the interval of integers. Let $G$ denote an, additively written, finite abelian group; let $\mathrm{r}(G)$ denote its rank and $\exp (G)$ its exponent. We denote by $C_{n}$ a cyclic group with $n$ elements. A set $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\} \subset G$, where the $e_{i}$ are distinct, is called independent if $\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} e_{i}=0$, with integers $a_{i}$, implies $a_{i} e_{i}=0$ for each $i \in[1, r]$.
2.1. Monoids. For $G_{0} \subset G$ we denote by $\mathcal{F}\left(G_{0}\right)$ the (multiplicatively written) free abelian monoid with basis $G_{0}$. An element $S=\prod_{i=1}^{l} g_{i}=$ $\prod_{g \in G_{0}} g^{\mathrm{v}_{g}(S)} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{0}\right)$ is called a sequence. The identity element of $\mathcal{F}\left(G_{0}\right)$ is called the empty sequence; it will be denoted by 1 . Divisors of sequences are called subsequences. $|S|=l$ is called the length of $S, \sigma(S)=\sum_{i=1}^{l} g_{i}$ the sum, and $\mathrm{k}(S)=\sum_{i=1}^{l} 1 /$ ord $g_{i}$ the cross number; the set $\operatorname{supp}(S)=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{l}\right\}$ is called the support. If $\sigma(S)=0 \in G$, then $S$ is called a zero-sum sequence (or a block); the monoid $\mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)=\left\{S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{0}\right): \sigma(S)=0\right\}$ is called the block monoid over $G_{0}$; the minimal zero-sum sequences, i.e., those without proper non-trivial zero-sum subsequence, are the irreducible elements (atoms) of $\mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)$, denoted by $\mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$. If there exists no subsequence $1 \neq T \mid S$ with $\sigma(T)=0$, then $S$ is called zero-sumfree. For $G_{0} \subset G$ and $S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right)$ let $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S\right)=S \cdot \mathcal{F}\left(G_{0}\right) \cap \mathcal{B}(G)$ and $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right)=\left\{B \in \Omega\left(G_{0}, S\right): \mathrm{v}_{g}(B) \geq l\right.$ for each $\left.g \in G_{0}\right\}$.

As already mentioned in the Introduction, for the monoid of principal ideals of the ring of integers, we denote by $\mathrm{L}(a)$ the set of lengths of $a \in H$, where $H$ is a Krull monoid (for instance, a block monoid).

For a set $L=\left\{l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots\right\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ with $l_{i}<l_{i+1}$, typically a set of lengths, let $\Delta(L)=\left\{l_{2}-l_{1}, l_{3}-l_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ denote the set of (successive) distances. For $G_{0} \subset G$ let $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)} \Delta(\mathrm{L}(B))$ be the set of distances of $G_{0}$. Note that $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\Delta\left(G_{0} \cup\{0\}\right)$ for every $G_{0} \subset G$.

The set of differences of $G$ is defined as

$$
\Delta^{*}(G)=\left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right): G_{0} \subset G, \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

we will frequently make use of the fact that indeed $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\operatorname{gcd} \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$.
A set $G_{0} \subset G$ with $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\emptyset$ is called half-factorial, since in this case $\mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)$ is a half-factorial monoid; a monoid is called half-factorial if $|\mathrm{L}(u)|=1$ for each element $u$ of the monoid. It is a well known result, obtained by L. Skula [30] and A. Zaks [31], that $G_{0}$ is half-factorial if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{k}(A)=1 \quad \text { for every } A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

moreover, $\mathcal{B}(G)$ is half-factorial if and only if $|G| \leq 2$. Thus $\Delta^{*}(G)=\emptyset$ if and only if $|G| \leq 2$. Moreover, for $|G| \geq 3$ one has min $\Delta(G)=1 \in \Delta^{*}(G)$.

Naturally, if $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \neq \emptyset$, then $G_{0}$ is referred to as non-half-factorial; if all proper subsets of $G_{0}$ are half-factorial, $G_{0}$ is called minimal non-halffactorial. For a non-half-factorial set $G_{0}$ some information on $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ can as well be obtained from the cross numbers of atoms. More precisely, the following holds: if $n$ denotes the exponent of $G$, then for every $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ one has $\left\{n, n \mathrm{k}\left(A^{n}\right)\right\} \subset \mathrm{L}\left(A^{n}\right)$; in particular (see [4])

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \mid n(\mathrm{k}(A)-1) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

2.2. AAMPs and related notions. Now, we recall the central definitions for our investigations. Let $d, M \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{0, d\} \subset \mathcal{D} \subset[0, d]$. A set $L \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is called an $A A M P$ with difference $d$, period $\mathcal{D}$ and bound $M$ if

$$
L=y+\left(L^{\prime} \cup L^{*} \cup L^{\prime \prime}\right) \subset y+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}
$$

for some integer $y, \emptyset \neq L^{*}=\left[0, \max L^{*}\right] \cap(\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}), L^{\prime} \subset[-M, 1]$, and $L^{\prime \prime} \subset \max L^{*}+[1, M]$. The sets $L^{\prime}, L^{\prime \prime}$, and $L^{*}$ are called the initial, end, and central part, respectively.

Let $H$ be a Krull monoid with finite class group $G$ and $|G| \geq 3$. Then there exists a constant $M_{G}$, just depending on $G$, such that for each $a \in H$ the set of lengths $\mathrm{L}(a)$ is an AAMP with bound $M_{G}$ (see [10, Chapter 4] or [9] for even more general statements).

For $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\{0, d\} \subset \mathcal{D} \subset[0, d]$ let
$\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)=\{a \in H: \mathrm{L}(a)$ is an AAMP with period $\mathcal{D}$ and bound $M$,

$$
\left.\max \mathrm{L}-\min \mathrm{L} \geq 3 M+d_{0}^{2}\right\}
$$

where $d_{0}=\max \Delta(G)$ (the constant $d_{0}$ is indeed finite, for instance $d_{0} \leq|G|-2$ and more precise results are known). For simplicity we write $\mathcal{P}(G, d, M)$ instead of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G),\{0, d\}, M)$.

In Theorem 1.1 we formulated a result on the counting functions of the sets $\mathcal{P}(H, \mathcal{D}, M)$ for all sufficiently large $M$. To get the result as stated, it turns out we only need to suppose that $M$ is sufficiently large to ensure that
every set of lengths of an element of $\mathcal{B}(G)$ is an AAMP with bound $M-d_{0}$, i.e., $M \geq M_{G}+d_{0}$. Yet, the combinatorial descriptions for $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ obtained in [10, Theorem 9.4.10] are only known to be valid if $M$ satisfies an additional condition. This condition is very technical and, since we do not need its full precision, we only mention that there exists a constant $M(G)$ such that for $M \geq M(G)$ the statement of Theorem 1.1 holds, in particular $M(G) \geq M_{G}+d_{0}$, and the exponents $\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)$ are given in the following way (we only formulate the special case we actually consider, the general case is similar but rather more technical): For $d \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ let $\mathrm{A}_{d}(G)=\left\{G_{0} \subset G: \min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=d\right\}$. Then (see [10, Theorem 9.4.10])

$$
\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)=\max \left\{\left|G_{0}\right|: G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}(G)\right\}
$$

and

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)=\max \left\{|S|: G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}(G), S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right), \text { and for some } l \in \mathbb{N}\right. \\
\left.\emptyset \neq \Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}(G, d, M(G))\right\}
\end{array}
$$

For $d \notin \Delta^{*}(G)$ we set $\mathrm{A}_{d}(G)=\emptyset$ and $\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)=\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)=0$. Since we need it in the proof of Lemma 7.1, we finally mention that for $G^{\prime} \subset G$ one has $M\left(G^{\prime}\right) \leq M(G)$.

Now, we recall the combinatorial description for the invariants $\mu(G)$ and $\psi_{k}(G)$. We have $\mu(G)=\max \left\{G_{0} \subset G: G_{0}\right.$ half-factorial $\}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi_{k}(G)=\max \left\{|S|: G_{0} \subset G\right. & \text { half-factorial, } \mu(G)=\left|G_{0}\right|, S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right) \\
& \text { and } \left.|\mathrm{L}(B)| \leq k \text { for every } B \in \Omega\left(G_{0}, S\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

2.3. Indecomposable sets. We recall the definition of an indecomposable set and some related notions (see [27]). A subset $G_{0} \subset G$ is called decomposable if $\mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)=\mathcal{B}\left(G_{1}\right) \cdot \mathcal{B}\left(G_{2}\right)$ for non-empty and disjoint $G_{1}, G_{2} \subset G_{0}$, or equivalently, $\left\langle G_{0}\right\rangle=\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle$ and $G_{0}=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$; we call $G_{1}, G_{2}$ components of $G_{0}$ and speak of a decomposition of $G_{0}$. If $\mathcal{B}\left(G_{0}\right)=\mathcal{B}\left(G_{1}\right) \ldots \mathcal{B}\left(G_{s}\right)$ with indecomposable and pairwise disjoint sets $G_{i}$, then we refer to this as a decomposition into indecomposables and call $G_{i}$ the indecomposable components of $G_{0}$. Every set has an essentially (i.e., up to ordering) unique decomposition into indecomposables. We recall that a set is half-factorial if and only if all its components are half-factorial. Moreover, if $G_{0}$ is not halffactorial and $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{s}$ are its indecomposable components, then $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ $=\operatorname{gcd}\left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{i}\right): G_{i}\right.$ non-half-factorial $\}$.
3. Proof of Theorem 1.1. We start with the definition of an arithmetical set (see [10, Definition 9.4.1], also cf. [14, Definition 5]) for subsets of the block monoid. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group. A subset $\mathcal{Z} \subset \mathcal{B}(G)$ is called arithmetical if for all $B_{1}, B, B_{2} \in \mathcal{B}(G)$ the conditions $B_{1}, B_{2} \in \mathcal{Z}$ and $B_{1}|B| B_{2}$ imply that $B \in \mathcal{Z}$.

Next, we prove that the sets $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$ are arithmetical.
Lemma 3.1. Let $G, d, \mathcal{D}$, and $M$ be as in Theorem 1.1. Then $\mathcal{P}(G, \mathcal{D}, M)$ is an arithmetical set.

In the proof of this result we make use of two facts on subsets of the integers (cf. [10, Lemma 4.2.4]): Let $d, d^{\prime} \in \mathbb{N}, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $A, B \subset \mathbb{Z}$. If $y+A+d \mathbb{Z} \subset A+d \mathbb{Z}$, then $y+A+d \mathbb{Z}=A+d \mathbb{Z}$. If $(B+d \mathbb{Z}) \cap[y+1, y+l] \subset$ $A+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$ and $l \geq \operatorname{lcm}\left\{d, d^{\prime}\right\}$, then $B+d \mathbb{Z} \subset A+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof of Lemma 3.1. Recall that we have $M \geq M_{G}+d_{0}$ (see Subsection 2.2). Let $B_{1}, B_{2} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}(G)$ be such that $B_{1}|B| B_{2}$. We have to show that $B \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$. Let $C_{1}, C_{2} \in \mathcal{B}(G)$ be such that $C_{1} B_{1}=B$ and $B C_{2}=B_{2}$. Let $c_{i} \in \mathrm{~L}\left(C_{i}\right)$. Then $c_{1}+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{1}\right) \subset \mathrm{L}(B) \subset-c_{2}+$ $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{2}\right)$. By the definition of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$ we know that $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{1}\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{2}\right)$ are AAMPs with difference $d$, period $\mathcal{D}$, bound $M$ and $\max \mathrm{L}\left(B_{i}\right)-\min \mathrm{L}\left(B_{i}\right) \geq$ $3 M+d_{0}^{2}$, where $d_{0}=\max \Delta(G)$, i.e., $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{i}\right)=y_{i}+\left(L_{i}^{\prime} \cup L_{i}^{*} \cup L_{i}^{\prime \prime}\right) \subset y_{i}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}$ for some integer $y_{i}, \emptyset \neq L_{i}^{*}=\left[0, \max L_{i}^{*}\right] \cap(\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}), L_{i}^{\prime} \subset[-M, 1]$, and $L_{i}^{\prime \prime} \subset \max L_{i}^{*}+[1, M]$, and we know that $\max L_{i}^{*} \geq M+d_{0}^{2}$. Moreover, we know that $\mathrm{L}(B)$ is an AAMP with some difference $d^{\prime} \in \Delta^{*}(G)$, some period $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ and bound $M-d_{0}$ (indeed, this is true for each element of $\mathcal{B}(G)$, cf. Subsection 2.2), i.e., $\mathrm{L}(B)=y+\left(L^{\prime} \cup L^{*} \cup L^{\prime \prime}\right) \subset y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$ for some integer $y, \emptyset \neq L^{*}=\left[0, \max L^{*}\right] \cap\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}\right), L^{\prime} \subset\left[-M+d_{0}, 1\right]$, and $L^{\prime \prime} \subset \max L^{*}+\left[1, M-d_{0}\right]$. Additionally, since $\mathrm{L}(B)$ contains a shift of $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{1}\right)$, we know that $\max \mathrm{L}(B)-\min \mathrm{L}(B) \geq 3 M+d_{0}^{2}$. Thus, we have $\max L^{*} \geq M+d_{0}^{2}$.

Since $c_{1}+\left(y_{1}+L_{1}^{*}\right) \subset c_{1}+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{1}\right) \subset \mathrm{L}(B) \subset y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$
c_{1}+y_{1}+\left(\left[0, \max L^{*}\right] \cap(\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z})\right) \subset y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}
$$

Since by definition $d, d^{\prime} \leq d_{0}$ it follows (cf. above) that $c_{1}+y_{1}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z} \subset$ $y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$. Considering $\mathrm{L}(B) \subset-c_{2}+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{2}\right)$, we find in the same way that

$$
y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z} \subset-c_{2}+y_{2}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}
$$

Thus, we get (cf. above) $c_{1}+y_{1}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}=-c_{2}+y_{2}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}=y+\mathcal{D}^{\prime}+d^{\prime} \mathbb{Z}$. So $L^{*}=\left[0, \max L^{*}\right] \cap\left(-c_{2}+y_{2}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Let $\mathcal{D}^{\prime \prime}=[0, d] \cap\left(-c_{2}+y_{2}+\mathcal{D}+d \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Then $L$ is an AAMP with difference $d$, period $\mathcal{D}^{\prime \prime}$ and bound $M-d_{0}$. Thus, "shifting" the central part possibly at the expense of increasing the bound (see [10, Lemma 4.2.6] for a precise statement), it follows that $L$ is an AAMP with difference $d$, period $\mathcal{D}$ and bound $M$. We already noted that $\max \mathrm{L}(B)-\min \mathrm{L}(B) \geq 3 M+d_{0}^{2}$. Hence $B \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$.

Now, Theorem 1.1 follows quite directly from known results.
Proof of Theorem 1.1. By Lemma 3.1 we know that $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$ is an arithmetical set. Thus (see [10, Proposition 9.4.2]), there exist $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{n}$
$\subset G, S_{i} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{i}\right)$ and $l_{i} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \Omega\left(G_{i}, S_{i}, l_{i}\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note that for $\Omega\left(G_{i}, S_{i}, l_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset$, we have $\Omega\left(G_{i} \cup\{0\}, S_{i} 0^{-\mathrm{v}_{0}\left(S_{i}\right)}, l_{i}\right) \subset$ $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{B}(G), \mathcal{D}, M)$. Therefore $\max \left\{\left|G_{i}\right|: i \in[1, n]\right\}>0$. Now, by (3), the first statement follows from results of J. Kaczorowski [15] (see in particular the proof of Theorem 2; also see [14, Section 5]), with a ${ }_{\mathcal{D}}(G)=\max \left\{\left|G_{i}\right|\right.$ : $i \in[1, n]\}$ and $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)=\max \left\{\left|S_{i}\right|:\left|G_{i}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)\right\}$.

For the second statement we may assume that a ${ }_{\mathcal{D}}(G)<|G|$, since otherwise $\mathrm{b}_{\mathcal{D}}(G)=0$ and it is vacuously true. Now, again by (3) the statement follows from results of M. Radziejewski [24] (see in particular Theorem 6 and the proof of Theorem 5).
4. The invariant $\mathrm{m}(G)$. We recall that the structure of $\Delta^{*}(G)$ depends on the size of $\exp (G)$ relative to $|G|$. To illustrate this, we recall some results: If $G$ is cyclic of order $n$, then (see [11])

$$
\max \Delta^{*}(G)=n-2, \quad \max \left(\Delta^{*}(G) \backslash\{n-2\}\right)=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-1 .
$$

Yet, if $G$ is a $p$-group of large rank, then $\Delta^{*}(G)$ is an interval (see [4]). However, much on $\Delta^{*}(G)$ is up to now unknown; for general $G$, even $\max \Delta^{*}(G)$ is only known if the exponent of $G$ is sufficiently large, and in that case $\max \Delta^{*}(G)=\exp (G)-2($ see [28]).

In this section we describe $\mathrm{m}(G)$, used in the formulations of Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 to give a precise meaning to the informal statement that $\exp (G)$ is large. First, we introduce the notion of LCN-set; the idea motivating this definition is well known and present in several earlier investigations on $\Delta^{*}(G)$.

Definition 4.1. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group.
(1) A subset $G_{0} \subset G$ is called a set with large cross numbers (LCN-set for short) if $\mathrm{k}(A) \geq 1$ for each $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$.
(2) We set

$$
\mathrm{m}(G)=\max \left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right): G_{0} \subset G \text { a non-half-factorial LCN-set }\right\} ;
$$

if there exists no non-half-factorial LCN-set, then $\mathrm{m}(G)=0$.
We note that, since $g^{\text {ord } g} \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ is an atom with cross number 1 for every $g \in G_{0}$, the value 1 is the largest possible for which such a definition makes sense. Moreover, by (1) half-factorial sets are LCN-sets.

Next, we explain the significance of these notions for our investigations.

Proposition 4.2 ([4]). Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with exponent $n$. If $n>2$, then
$\max \left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right): G_{0}\right.$ non-half-factorial and non-LCN $\}=n-2$;
in particular, $\max \Delta^{*}(G)=\max \{n-2, \mathrm{~m}(G)\}$.
Thus, the conditions on the exponent in Theorem 1.2 are just strong enough to assert that the sets in question are not LCN-sets. We have to impose this condition, since for LCN-sets not even the basic direct problems, for instance to determine $\mathrm{m}(G)$, are solved in general. Thus, at present it does not seem (to the author) feasible to address the inverse problems. In any case, results on LCN-sets for (elementary) p-groups with large rank (cf. Proposition 4.4 and the subsequent remark) indicate that results (and proofs) for groups with "small" exponent should be quite different.

At the end of this section we give upper and lower bounds for $\mathrm{m}(G)$, which can be used to decide, for various types of groups, whether the conditions of Theorem 1.2 hold.

First, we recall the definition of (he (little) cross number, $\mathrm{k}(G)$, of a finite abelian group $G$, and some results. It is a well known, in the context of non-unique factorizations, invariant defined as

$$
\mathrm{k}(G)=\max \{\mathrm{k}(S): S \in \mathcal{F}(G) \text { zero-sumfree }\} .
$$

For $\mathrm{k}(G)$ a variety of results are known, though the precise value is unknown in general; we summarize those that we shall need in this paper.

Proposition 4.3. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group.
(1) $\mathrm{k}(G) \leq \log |G|$ (see [13]).
(2) If $G=C_{n_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus C_{n_{r}}$ is a p-group, then $\mathrm{k}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(n_{i}-1\right) / n_{i}$ (see [7]).
(3) If $G=C_{p^{m}} \oplus C_{p^{n}} \oplus C_{q}^{s}$ with $m, n, s \in \mathbb{N}$ and distinct primes $p$ and $q$, then $\mathrm{k}(G)=\left(p^{m}-1\right) / p^{m}+\left(p^{n}-1\right) / p^{n}+s(q-1) / q$ (see [12]).
In [26, Theorem 5.4] it is proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{m}(G) \leq 2 \mathrm{k}(G)-1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

clearly, using Proposition 4.3, more explicit bounds can be derived from (4). Inequality (4) is sharp for elementary 2 -groups, yet not in general, as can be seen from the following result.

Proposition 4.4. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\mathrm{r}(G) \geq 2$. Then $\mathrm{m}(G) \geq \mathrm{r}(G)-1$. If $G$ is an elementary $p$-group, then equality holds.

Moreover, [4, Theorem 1.5] implies that $\mathrm{m}(G)=\mathrm{r}(G)-1$ for $p$-groups with sufficiently large rank (relative to the exponent) as well. We apply the following lemma to prove the proposition.

Lemma 4.5. Let $G_{0}=\left\{g, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\}$ with the $e_{i}$ independent and $g \in G$. If $G_{0}$ is a non-half-factorial LCN-set, then $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq r-1$.

In [28, Proposition 4.1] $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ for "simple" sets has been investigated. This lemma strengthens that result under the additional condition that $G_{0}$ is a LCN-set; the proofs are very similar.

Proof of Lemma 4.5. By [27, Theorem 4.5] we may assume without restriction that $g=\sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} e_{i}$ with $a_{i} e_{i} \neq 0$ for each $i \in[1, r]$. Let $n=$ ord $g$ and $D=\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$. For $j \in[1, n]$ let $W_{j}$ denote the (unique) minimal block with $\mathrm{v}_{g}\left(W_{j}\right)=j$; let $B_{j} \in \mathcal{B}\left(\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\}\right)$ be such that $W_{j} B_{j}=W_{1}^{j}$. Note that $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{j}\right)=\left\{\mathrm{k}\left(B_{j}\right)\right\}$ for every $j$. We know that $W_{1}$ and $W_{n}=g^{n}$ are atoms, and define $m=\min \left\{j \in[2, n]: W_{j} \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)\right\}$. If $m=n$, it follows (by [28]) that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=|n-1-r|$; since $1 \leq \mathrm{k}\left(W_{1}\right)=(r+1) / n$, we have $|n-1-r| \leq r-1$. If $k\left(W_{1}\right)=1$, it follows (by [28]) that for any $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ with $\mathrm{k}(A) \neq 1, \min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq \mathrm{k}(A)-1<r$. Thus assume $m<n$ and $\mathrm{k}\left(W_{1}\right)>1$. Let $k=\min \left\{j \in[2, n]: \mathrm{L}\left(W_{j}\right)+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{j}\right) \neq\{j\}\right\}$. It follows (by [28]) that $W_{k} \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ and thus $\{1\}+\left\{\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right)\right\}=\mathrm{L}\left(W_{k}\right)+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{k}\right)$. Consequently, $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq\left|1+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right)-k\right|$. If $1+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right)>k$ it follows (by [28]) that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq r-1$. Thus assume $1+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right)<k$. By the definition of $k$ we have $\{k-1\}=\mathrm{L}\left(W_{k-1}\right)+\mathrm{L}\left(B_{k-1}\right)$; let $l \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $\{l\}=\mathrm{L}\left(W_{k-1}\right)$.

We assert that $l \leq r$. Note $W_{k-1}=g^{k-1} F$ with $F \in \mathcal{F}\left(\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\}\right)$ zero-sumfree, thus $\mathrm{k}(F) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(1-1 /\right.$ ord $\left.e_{i}\right)<r$ and $\mathrm{k}\left(W_{k-1}\right)<r+1$. Yet, since $G_{0}$ is a LCN-set, we have $\mathrm{k}\left(W_{k-1}\right) \geq l$ and the assertion is proved. Since $W_{k}$ is an atom, $B_{k} \neq B_{k-1}$ and thus $\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right) \geq 1+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k-1}\right)$. All this yields

$$
k-\left(1+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k}\right)\right) \leq k-\left(2+\mathrm{k}\left(B_{k-1}\right)\right)=k-(2+k-1-l) \leq r-1,
$$

and finishes the proof.
Proof of Proposition 4.4. Let $\mathrm{r}(G)=r$. First, we show that $\mathrm{m}(G) \geq r-1$. Let $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\} \subset G$ be independent with ord $e_{1}=\cdots=$ ord $e_{r}$, and $g=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_{i}$. By [4, Proposition 5.2], the set $G_{0}=\left\{g, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right\}$ is an LCN-set and $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=r-1$.

Now, assume $G$ is an elementary $p$-group and let $G_{0} \subset G$ be a LCN-set. We have to show that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq r-1$. Without restriction we assume that $G_{0}$ is minimal non-half-factorial. If $G_{0}$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 4.5 the result is obvious, and if this is not the case it follows that min $\Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq$ $1 / p+\mathrm{k}(G)-1<r-1$, the first inequality by [28, Corollary 3.1] (also cf. proof of Theorem 4.1 there) and the second by Proposition 4.3.

Finally, we prove a (weak) upper bound for $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)$, which we will need in Section 6.

Lemma 4.6. Let $n \geq 5$. Then $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right) \leq n-4$.

Since we make use of it in the proof of this result, we briefly recall the definition of Davenport's constant, $\mathrm{D}(G)$, of a finite abelian group $G$ :

$$
\mathrm{D}(G)=\max \{|A|: A \in \mathcal{A}(G)\}
$$

It is easy to see that $\mathrm{D}(G)=1+\max \{|S|: S \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ zero-sumfree $\}$. The value of Davenport's constant is known for various groups, but is in general unknown (cf. [10, Chapter 5] for a detailed discussion). We only use the fact that $\mathrm{D}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)=2 n-1$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (see [21]).

Proof of Lemma 4.6. By (4) we know $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right) \leq 2 \mathrm{k}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)-1$. This yields $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right) \leq 4(\log n)-1$, which is less than $n-3$ for $n \geq 12$, and $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right) \leq 3$ if $n$ is a prime power, by Proposition 4.3 part (1) and (2), respectively. Moreover, by Proposition 4.4 we know that $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)=1$ if $n$ is a prime. Thus, it remains to consider $n=6$ and $n=10$. Using Proposition 4.3(3), we get $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{10}^{2}\right) \leq 21 / 5$ and $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{6}^{2}\right) \leq 11 / 3$.

Consequently, it remains to show that $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{6}^{2}\right) \neq 3$. Seeking a contradiction, we assume that there exist some subset $G_{0} \subset C_{6}^{2}$ that is an LCN-set with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=3$. Since we know that $\mathrm{m}\left(C_{6}^{2}\right)<6$, we may assume without restriction that $G_{0}$ is minimal non-half-factorial. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$. By (2) we know that $6(\mathrm{k}(A)-1)$ is a multiple of 3 and thus, by Proposition 4.3(3) and since $G_{0}$ is an LCN-set, $\mathrm{k}(A) \in\{1,3 / 2,2,5 / 2\}$.

Let $W \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ with maximal cross number. We note that $\mathrm{k}(W)>1$ and $\operatorname{supp}(W)=G_{0}$. We write $W=S_{2} S_{3} S_{6}$ where $S_{i}$ denotes the subsequence of elements of order $i$. We recall that $\left|S_{i}\right| \leq \mathrm{D}\left(C_{i}^{2}\right)$ for each $i \in[1,3]$, and equality can only hold if $W=S_{i}$.

CASE 1: $\mathrm{k}(W)=3 / 2$. Since $\mathrm{k}\left(W^{2}\right)=3$, we have $\max \mathrm{L}\left(W^{2}\right) \leq 3$. Since $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=3$, this yields $\mathrm{L}\left(W^{2}\right)=\{2\}$. Consequently, every factorization of $W^{2}$ consists of two atoms each with cross number $3 / 2$. This implies that $S_{2}=1$, since otherwise $W^{2}$ would be divisible by an atom with cross number 1. Similarly, since $\mathrm{k}\left(W^{3}\right)=9 / 2$ we have $S_{3}=1$ and $\mathrm{v}_{g}(W)=1$ for each $g \in G_{0}$. Now, let $h \in G_{0}$ and consider $\left(h^{-1} W\right)^{2}$. Since we know that $|W|=6 \mathrm{k}(W)=9$, we have $\left|\left(h^{-1} W\right)^{2}\right|>\mathrm{D}\left(C_{6}^{2}\right)$ and $\left(h^{-1} W\right)^{2}$ is not zero-sumfree. Since $G_{0} \backslash\{h\}$ is half-factorial, this implies that $W^{2}$ is divisible by an atom with cross number 1 , a contradiction.

CASE 2: $\mathrm{k}(W)=2$. Again, we have $\mathrm{L}\left(W^{2}\right)=\{2\}$ and $W^{2}$ is not divisible by an atom with cross number less than 2 , in particular $S_{2}=1$. Since $2\left|S_{3}\right|+$ $\left|S_{6}\right|=12$, we conclude that both $S_{3}$ and $S_{6}$ are non-empty. This implies that $S_{3}^{2}$ and $S_{6}^{2}$ are zero-sumfree, since any minimal zero-sum subsequence of $S_{3}$ or $S_{6}$ would have cross number 1 and divide $W^{2}$. However, this implies $2\left|S_{i}\right|<\mathrm{D}\left(C_{i}^{2}\right)$ for $i \in\{3,6\}$ and contradicts $2\left|S_{3}\right|+\left|S_{6}\right|=12$.

Case $3: \mathrm{k}(W)=5 / 2$. It is easy to see that $S_{6} \neq 1$. First we show that $S_{3}=1$. We assume $S_{3} \neq 1$. Then $W^{3}=S_{3}^{3} \cdot\left(S_{3}^{-1} W\right)^{-1}$ is a factorization of
$W^{3}$ into two blocks, each over a half-factorial set. This implies that $\mathrm{k}\left(W^{3}\right)$ is an integer, a contradiction.

Now, we have $3\left|S_{2}\right|+\left|S_{6}\right|=15$, and $\left|S_{2}\right|<3$ and $\left|S_{6}\right| \leq 11$. Consequently $\left|S_{2}\right|=2$ and $\left|S_{6}\right|=9$. Since $\left|S_{6}\right|>\mathrm{D}\left(C_{3}^{2}\right)$, the sequence $S_{6}$ has a non-trivial proper subsequence $T_{6}$ such that ord $\sigma\left(T_{6}\right)=2$. The sequence $\sigma\left(T_{6}\right) S_{2}$ has a non-trivial zero-sum subsequence and thus $T_{6} S_{2}$ as well. Consequently, $W=S_{2} S_{6}$ has a non-trivial proper zero-sum subsequence, a contradiction.
5. Subsets with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)$. In this section we investigate the structure of subsets $G_{0} \subset G$ such that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)$ for groups with "large" exponent, namely $\exp (G)>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$; in particular, we prove Theorem 1.2(1).

As discussed in the preceding section, it is well known that in this case $\max \Delta^{*}(G)=\exp (G)-2$. Moreover, it is known that $\min \Delta(\{-g, g\})=$ ord $g-2$ for every $g \in G$ with ord $g \geq 3$ (cf. [4, Proposition 5.2]), which provides examples of sets with minimal distance equal to $\max \Delta^{*}(G)$. In the following results we show that every indecomposable set with minimal distance equal to $\max \Delta^{*}(G)$ is of this form.

Theorem 5.1. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\exp (G)>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$ and let $G_{0} \subset G$. Then $G_{0}$ is indecomposable with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)$ if and only if

$$
G_{0}=\{-g, g\} \quad \text { with } \text { ord } g=\exp (G)
$$

Proof. Let $\exp (G)=n$. By Proposition 4.2 we have $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=n-2$. Since by [4, Proposition 5.2], min $\Delta(\{-g, g\})=$ ord $g-2$ for $g \in G$ with ord $g \geq 3$, one implication is obvious. It remains to prove the other one.

Thus, let $G_{0} \subset G$ be indecomposable with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=n-2$ and assume to the contrary that $G_{0}$ is not of the claimed form; moreover assume that $G_{0}$ is minimal with this property. Clearly, $G_{0}$ is not an LCN-set. Thus, there exists some $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ such that $\mathrm{k}(A)<1$ and by $(2)$ indeed $\mathrm{k}(A)=2 / n$. Consequently, $A=(-g) g$ for some $g$ with ord $g=n$, in particular $\{-g, g\} \subset$ $G_{0}$. By assumption $G_{0} \backslash\{-g, g\} \neq \emptyset$.

Since $G_{0}$ is indecomposable, there exists some $S \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0} \backslash\{-g, g\}\right)$ with $\sigma(S) \in\langle g\rangle \backslash\{0\}$, say $\sigma(S)=a g$ with $a \in[1, n-1]$. Assume $S$ is minimal with this property, i.e., has no proper subsequence with this property. We consider the atoms $U=g^{n-a} S$ and $U^{\prime}=(-g)^{a} S$. Note that $(-g)^{n} U=((-g) g)^{n-a} U^{\prime}$. Thus $(n-2) \mid(n-a+1-2)$ and therefore $a \in\{1, n-1\}$. Without restriction (possibly interchanging the roles of $g$ and $-g$ ), assume $a=1$.

Consequently, $|S| \geq 2$ and $\mathrm{k}(U)=(n-1) / n+\mathrm{k}(S)>1$. Thus, the set $G_{0} \backslash\{-g\}$ is not half-factorial. We have $n-2=\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right) \leq \min \Delta\left(G_{0} \backslash\right.$ $\{-g\}) \leq n-2$. Since $G_{0}$ is indecomposable it follows that $G_{0} \backslash\{-g\}$ is
indecomposable as well and trivially $G_{0} \backslash\{-g\}$ is not equal to $\{-h, h\}$ for any $h \in G$, a contradiction to the minimality of $G_{0}$.

As discussed in Subsection 2.3 every set has a unique decomposition into indecomposables, thus Theorem 5.1 yields a description of all sets with minimal distance equal to $\max \Delta^{*}(G)$.

Corollary 5.2. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\exp (G)>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$, and let $G_{0} \subset G$ with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)$. Further, let $G_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{s} G_{i}$ be the decomposition into indecomposable components. Then each component $G_{i}$ is either half-factorial or equal to $\left\{-g_{i}, g_{i}\right\}$ for some $g_{i} \in G$ with ord $g_{i}=$ $\exp (G)$; and there exists at least one non-half-factorial component.

Proof. At least one component has to be non-half-factorial and we have $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left\{\min \Delta\left(G_{i}\right): G_{i}\right.$ non-half-factorial\} (see Subsection 2.3). We know that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ is maximal. Thus, if $G_{i}$ is non-half-factorial, then $\min \Delta\left(G_{i}\right)=\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)$ and the result follows by Theorem 5.1.

Before we prove Theorem 1.2(1), we derive a further auxiliary result.
Lemma 5.3. Let $G=H_{1} \oplus H_{2}$ and $d \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ be such that $d \mathbb{N} \cap \Delta^{*}(G)$ $=\{d\}$. If $d \in \Delta^{*}\left(H_{1}\right)$, then $\mathrm{a}_{d}(G) \geq \mathrm{a}_{d}\left(H_{1}\right)+\max \left\{\mu\left(H_{2}\right), \mathrm{a}_{d}\left(H_{2}\right)\right\}-1$.

Proof. Let $G_{1} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}\left(H_{1}\right)$ with (maximal) cardinality $\mathrm{a}_{d}\left(H_{1}\right)$. Further, take $H_{0} \subset H_{2}$ half-factorial and, if such a set exists, $G_{2} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}\left(H_{2}\right)$ with (maximal) cardinality $\mu\left(H_{2}\right)$ and $\mathrm{a}_{d}\left(H_{2}\right)$, respectively. Then $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ and $G_{1} \cup H_{0}$ are elements of $\mathrm{A}_{d}(G)$. Since $G_{1} \cap G_{2}=G_{1} \cap H_{0}=\{0\}$, the result follows.

Now the proof of Theorem $1.2(1)$ is almost straightforward, yet there is one exceptional case that requires the use of a recent result on half-factorial sets in elementary $p$-groups.

Proof of Theorem 1.2(1). Assume $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$. By Theorem 5.1 it is obvious that $\mathrm{a}_{n-2}\left(C_{n}\right)=3$. It follows from Lemma 5.3 that $\mathrm{a}_{n-2}(G) \geq$ $2+\mu\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.

Let $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-2}(G)$ and let $G_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{s} G_{i}$ be the decomposition into indecomposable components. By Theorem 5.1 each $G_{i}$ is either half-factorial or equal to $\left\{-g_{i}, g_{i}\right\}$ for some $g_{i} \in G_{0}$ with ord $g_{i}=n$; and there exists at least one $j \in[1, s]$ such that $G_{j}$ is not half-factorial. Assume there exist more than one non-half-factorial component, say $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are non-half-factorial. Now consider $G_{0}^{\prime}=G_{1}^{\prime} \cup \bigcup_{i=2}^{s} G_{i}$ where $G_{1}^{\prime} \subset\left\langle g_{1}\right\rangle \backslash\{0\}$ is half-factorial with maximal cardinality, $\mu\left(C_{n}\right)-1$. We have $G_{0}^{\prime} \in \mathrm{A}_{n-2}(G)$. Observe that $\mu\left(C_{n}\right) \geq 3$ unless $n \in \mathbb{P} \cup\{1\}$. Thus, if $n \notin \mathbb{P}$, then $\left|G_{0}^{\prime}\right| \geq\left|G_{0}\right|$; consequently, in this case, there exists a set $G_{0}^{\prime \prime} \in \mathrm{A}_{n-2}(G)$ with cardinality $\mathrm{a}_{n-2}(G)$ and exactly one non-half-factorial component, and the result follows.

So assume $n \in \mathbb{P}$, and set $r=\mathrm{r}(G)$. Repeated application of Lemma 5.3 yields $\mathrm{a}_{n-2}(G) \geq 2 t+\mu\left(C_{p}^{r-t}\right)$ for every $t \in[1, r]$. Conversely, let $t$ denote the number of non-half-factorial components of $G_{0}$. We obtain

$$
\left|G_{0}\right| \leq 2 t+\mu\left(C_{p}^{r-t}\right)
$$

Recall (see [22]) that $\mu\left(C_{p}^{r}\right)$ equals $1+r p / 2$ for even $r$ and $2+(r-1) p / 2=$ $1+\mu\left(C_{p}^{r-1}\right)$ for odd $r$. Thus, $2 t+\mu\left(C_{p}^{r-t}\right)$ is maximal for odd $r$ if $t=1$, and for even $r$ if $t=2$, which implies the result.

Since $\mu\left(C_{n}\right)=3$ if and only if $n=p^{2}$ for some prime $p$, the proof of Theorem 1.2(1) shows that if $n$ is not a prime or the square of a prime, then every $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-2}(G)$ with maximal cardinality has exactly one non-half-factorial component. It might be interesting to note that for $G=C_{p^{2}}^{2}=\left\langle e_{1}\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e_{2}\right\rangle$ there actually exist sets in $\mathrm{A}_{p^{2}-2}(G)$ with cardinality $\mathrm{a}_{p^{2}-2}(G)$ both with one and two non-half-factorial components, e.g., $\left\{0, e_{1}, p e_{1}, e_{2},-e_{2}\right\}$ and $\left\{0, e_{1},-e_{1}, e_{2},-e_{2}\right\}$.
6. Subsets with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)-1$. Having dealt with sets where the minimal distance is maximal, we turn to the investigation of sets with minimal distance $\max \Delta^{*}(G)-1$, again assuming that the exponent of $G$ is sufficiently large (now we assume $\exp (G)>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$ ). Of course, for $\max \Delta^{*}(G)-1$ it is not granted by definition that sets with such minimal distance exist; indeed, as mentioned in Section 4 for cyclic groups (of order at least 5) this is not the case. However, if two independent elements $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ $\subset G$ each of order $\exp (G)$ exist, then the set $\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ has minimal distance $\exp (G)-3$ (see [2, Example 4.11]). It turns out that, in the case of "large" exponent, sets of this type are the only indecomposable ones with minimal distance $\exp (G)-3$.

Theorem 6.1. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\exp (G)>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$ and let $G_{0} \subset G$. Then $G_{0}$ is indecomposable with $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}\right)=\max \Delta^{*}(G)$ -1 if and only if
$G_{0}=\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\} \quad$ with independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ and ord $e_{i}=\exp (G)$.
In particular, $\max \Delta^{*}(G)-1 \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ if and only if there exist two independent elements each of order $\exp (G)$.

Again, we start with some auxiliary results.
Lemma 6.2. Let $\exp (G)=n>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$, and $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-3}(G)$. Then there exists an independent set $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ with ord $e_{i}=n$ such that $\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}\right.$, $\left.e_{1}, e_{2}\right\} \subset G_{0}$.

Proof. Since $\mathrm{m}(G)<n-3$ the set $G_{0}$ is not LCN. Thus there exists some $A \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}\right)$ such that $\mathrm{k}(A)<1$. By (2) we have $\mathrm{k}(A)=3 / n$, in
particular $|A| \leq 3$. Since $|A| \leq 2$ yields a contradiction, we have $|A|=3$, say $A=g h(-g-h)$, and each element in $A$ has order $n$. It remains to show that $g$ and $h$ are independent. Suppose not. Then there exist $a, b \in[1, n-1]$ such that $g^{a} h^{b}$ is an atom. Again by (2) it follows that $a+b \in\{3, n, 2 n-3\}$; and in fact $a+b=2 n-3$ is impossible, since in this case $g^{n-a} h^{n-b} \mid g^{a} h^{b}$, contrary to $g^{a} h^{b}$ being an atom. Assume $a+b=3$, say $a=2$ and $b=1$. It follows that $n$ is odd and $g^{(n+1) / 2} h$ is an atom with cross number $(n+3) / 2 n$, a contradiction, since this would imply $(n-3) \mid(n-3) / 2$. Now, assume $a+b=n$. Without restriction assume $a \leq b$. We consider the block

$$
\left(g^{a} h^{b}\right) \cdot(-g-h)^{n}=((-g-h) g h)^{a} \cdot\left((-g-h)^{n-a} h^{b-a}\right)
$$

If $B=(-g-h)^{n-a} h^{b-a}$ is an atom, it follows that $(n-3) \mid(a-1)$ and thus $a=1$, which implies $b=n-1$ and $g=h$, contrary to $B$ being an atom. Thus $B$ is not an atom. Since $\mathrm{k}(B)<2$, there exist some atom $A_{1}$ such that $A_{1} \mid B$ and $\mathrm{k}\left(A_{1}\right)<1$. Using (2) again we infer that $\mathrm{k}\left(A_{1}\right)=3 / n$. As above, this yields an atom with cross number $(n+3) / 2 n$ and a contradiction.

Lemma 6.3. Let $n \geq 5$. Let $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-3}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)$. Then $G_{0} \backslash\{0\}=\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}\right.$, $\left.e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ with independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ where ord $e_{i}=n$.

Proof. By Lemma 4.6 we know that $n>\mathrm{m}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)+3$. Consequently, by Lemma 6.2 we have $H_{0}=\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\} \subset G_{0}$ for suitable independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ with ord $e_{i}=n$. Thus it suffices to show that for $g \in C_{n}^{2} \backslash\left(H_{0} \cup\{0\}\right)$ we have $\min \Delta\left(H_{0} \cup\{g\}\right) \neq n-3$; say $g=-a e_{1}-b e_{2}$ with $a, b \in[0, n-1]$ and assume $a \geq b$.

In case $b>0$, the identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(g e_{1}^{a} e_{2}^{b}\right) \cdot\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{n}=\left(g\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{n-b} e_{1}^{a-b}\right) \cdot\left(\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right) e_{1} e_{2}\right)^{b} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

implies that $(n-3) \mid(b+1-2)$. Thus, we have $b \in\{0,1, n-2\}$.
In case $a>b$, the identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(g\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{n-a} e_{2}^{b+n-a}\right) \cdot e_{1}^{n}=\left(g e_{1}^{a} e_{2}^{b}\right) \cdot\left(\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right) e_{1} e_{2}\right)^{n-a} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

implies that $(n-3) \mid(n-a+1-2)$. Thus, if $a>b$, then $a \in\{2, n-1\}$.
Consequently, it remains to consider the following cases (note that $(a, b)$ $=(1,1)$ and $(a, b)=(n-1,0)$ are impossible $)$ :

CASE 1: $(a, b)=(n-2, n-2)$. The relation

$$
\left(g e_{1}^{n-2} e_{2}^{n-2}\right)^{2}=e_{1}^{n} e_{2}^{n}\left(g^{2} e_{1}^{n-4} e_{2}^{n-4}\right)
$$

implies $(n-3) \mid 1$, a contradiction.
CASE 2: $(a, b) \in\{(2,1),(n-1,1),(n-1, n-2)\}$. The atom $g e_{1}^{a} e_{2}^{b}$ has cross number $4 / n, 1+1 / n$, or $(2-2 / n)$, and thus $n-3$ divides $n-4$, 1 , or $n-2$, respectively, a contradiction.

Case 3: $(a, b)=(2,0)$. If $n$ is even, then $g e_{1}^{2}$ has cross number $4 / n$ and $(n-3) \mid(n-4)$, a contradiction. If $n$ is odd, then the atom $g^{(n+1) / 2} e_{1}$ has cross number $(n+3) / 2 n$ and $(n-3) \mid(n-3) / 2$, a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 6.1. We set $\exp (G)=n$. By Proposition 4.2 we have $\max \Delta^{*}(G)-1=n-3$. As recalled in the introduction to this section, the set $\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ with independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ and ord $e_{i}=n$ has minimal distance $n-3$, and obviously the set is indecomposable.

To prove the converse, we assume to the contrary that there exist indecomposable sets in $\mathrm{A}_{n-3}(G)$ which do not have the asserted form. Let $G_{0}$ be such a set with minimal cardinality. By Lemma 6.2 it follows that $\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\} \subset G_{0}$ with independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ where ord $e_{i}=n$. By assumption $H_{0}=G_{0} \backslash\left\{-e_{1}-e_{2}, e_{1}, e_{2}\right\} \neq \emptyset$. Since $G_{0}$ is indecomposable, it follows that there exists some $S \in \mathcal{F}\left(H_{0}\right)$ such that $\sigma(S) \in\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}\right\rangle \backslash\{0\}$. Let $S$ be minimal with this property. Note that by Lemma $6.3,|S| \geq 2$. Further, let $a, b \in[0, n-1]$ be such that $\sigma(S)=-a e_{1}-b e_{1}$, and assume that $a \geq b$.

Since $S$ is minimal with $\sigma(S) \in\left\langle e_{1}, e_{2}\right\rangle \backslash\{0\}$, the same reasoning as in (5) and (6) applies. Thus, it suffices to consider the three cases below; in each of them we give an example of an atom with cross number not equal to 1 whose support is a proper subset of $G_{0}$.

Case 1: For $(a, b) \in\{(n-2, n-2),(n-1,1),(n-1, n-2)\}$ the atom $A=S e_{1}^{a} e_{2}^{b}$ has cross number greater than 1 .

Case 2: For $(a, b) \in\{(2,1),(2,0)\}$ we consider the atom $A=S\left(-e_{1}\right.$ $\left.-e_{2}\right)^{n-2} e_{2}^{n-2+b}$.

CASE 3: For $(a, b)=(1,1)$ or $(a, b)=(n-1,0)$, we consider $A=S\left(-e_{1}\right.$ $\left.-e_{2}\right)^{n-1}$ or $A=S e_{1}^{n-1}$, respectively; we recall $|S| \geq 2$.

We set $G_{0}^{\prime}=\operatorname{supp}(A)$. Then $G_{0}^{\prime} \subsetneq G_{0}$ is indecomposable, since it is the support of an atom, and non-half-factorial. Since $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ has to be a multiple of $n-3$ and $\max \Delta^{*}(G) \leq n-2$ by Proposition 4.2, it follows that $\min \Delta\left(G_{0}^{\prime}\right)=n-3$. By the minimality condition on $G_{0}$, it follows that $G_{0}^{\prime}=\left\{-f_{1}-f_{2}, f_{1}, f_{2}\right\}$ with independent $\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}\right\}$ where ord $f_{i}=n$. In any case, this yields a contradiction, since $\mathrm{k}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \leq 1$ for every $A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}\left(G_{0}^{\prime}\right)$, yet $\mathrm{k}(A)>1$.

Clearly, Theorem 6.1 implies a result similar to Corollary 5.2 , since no multiple of $\exp (G)-3$ is contained in $\Delta^{*}(G)$. We do not formulate it explicitly. Now, Theorem 1.2(2) follows immediately.

Proof of Theorem 1.2(2). Assume $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$. By Theorem 6.1 the result is obvious for $C_{n}^{2}$; and thus a ${ }_{n-3}(G) \geq 3+\mu\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$ by Lemma 5.3. Since $\mu\left(C_{n}^{2}\right) \geq 1+n>5$ (cf. [3, Corollary 6.4]), it follows that a set $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-3}(G)$ with $\left|G_{0}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{n-3}(G)$ has exactly one non-half-factorial component, and the result follows.

Moreover, the results of this section yield an (unconditional) result on $\Delta^{*}(G)$ for $G$ with rank at most 2 . For these groups it is known (unconditionally) that $\max \Delta^{*}(G)=\exp (G)-2$ (see [4, Theorem 1.4] and [10, Corollary 6.8.11] for a different argument). Here, we answer for which $G$ we have $\exp (G)-3 \in \Delta^{*}(G)$. As mentioned in Section 4, for cyclic groups a stronger result is known.

Corollary 6.4. Let $G$ be a finite abelian group with $\exp (G)=n$ and $\mathrm{r}(G) \leq 2$. Then $n-3 \in \Delta^{*}(G)$ if and only if $n=4$ or $G \cong C_{n}^{2}$ with $n \geq 5$.
7. Results on $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$. Now, we investigate $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G)$. Essentially, we restrict ourselves to proving Theorem 1.3. For the definition of the invariant $\psi_{k}(G)$ used below, see Subsection 2.2.

Lemma 7.1. Let $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}(G)$ with $\left|G_{0}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{d}(G)$ where $d \mathbb{N} \cap \Delta^{*}(G)=\{d\}$, and let $G_{0}=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ be a decomposition where $G_{1}$ is non-half-factorial.
(1) If $G_{2} \neq\{0\}$ is half-factorial, then $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G) \geq \mathrm{b}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)+\psi_{1}\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle\right)+1$.
(2) If $G_{2}$ is non-half-factorial, then $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G) \geq \mathrm{b}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)+\mathrm{b}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle\right)+1$.

Proof. Without restriction assume $0 \in G_{2}$. Note that $G_{1}$, and in (2) also $G_{2}$, have minimal distance $d$.
(1) By Lemma 5.3 we have $G_{1} \in \mathrm{~A}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)$ and $\left|G_{1}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)-1$; moreover, $G_{2}$ is half-factorial and $\left|G_{2}\right|=\mu\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle\right)$. Without restriction (considering suitable $G_{1}^{\prime} \subset\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle$ and $G_{2}^{\prime} \subset\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle$ if necessary), we may assume that there exists a sequence $T_{2} \in \mathcal{F}\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle \backslash G_{2}\right)$ with $\left|T_{2}\right|=\psi_{1}\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle\right)$ such that $|\mathrm{L}(C)|=1$ for every $C \in \Omega\left(G_{2}, T_{2}\right)$. Further, we may assume that there exists a sequence $T_{1} \in \mathcal{F}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle \backslash G_{1}\right)$ with $\left|T_{1}\right|=\mathrm{b}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)$ such that $\Omega\left(G_{1}, T_{1}, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle, d, M(G)\right)$ for some $l \in \mathbb{N}$. (Recall from Subsection 2.2 that $M(G) \geq M\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)$ and since $\Omega\left(G_{1}, T_{1}, l^{\prime}\right) \subset \mathcal{P}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle, d, M\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)\right)$ we have $\Omega\left(G_{1}, T_{1}, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle, d, M(G)\right)$ for some $l \geq l^{\prime}$. .)

Now, let $g_{1} \in G_{1}$ and $g_{2} \in G_{2} \backslash\{0\}$. We set $S=\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right) T_{1} T_{2}$ and assert that $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}(G, d, M(G))$. Let $B=S F_{1} F_{2} \in \Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right)$ where $F_{1} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $F_{2} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{2}\right)$. Consider $B^{\prime}=\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right)^{-1} g_{1} g_{2} B=$ $\left(g_{1} T_{1} F_{1}\right)\left(g_{2} T_{2} F_{2}\right)$.

We note that $B^{\prime}$ is a block over $\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle \cup\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle$ and thus $\mathrm{L}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{L}\left(g_{1} T_{1} F_{1}\right)+$ $\mathrm{L}\left(g_{2} T_{2} F_{2}\right)$. Moreover, in each factorization of $B$ there is an atom $A$ containing $g_{1}+g_{2}$, and $\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right)^{-1} g_{1} g_{2} A$ is a product of two atoms. Conversely, in each factorization of $B^{\prime}$ there are atoms $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ with $g_{i} \mid A_{i}$, and $\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right)^{-1}\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right) A_{1} A_{2}$ is an atom. Consequently, $\mathrm{L}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=1+\mathrm{L}(B)$.

By the definition of $T_{2}$, since $g_{2} F_{2} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{2}\right)$, the set $\mathrm{L}\left(g_{2} T_{2} F_{2}\right)$ is a singleton, say equal to $\{L\}$; and $g_{1} T_{1} F_{1} \in \Omega\left(G_{1}, T_{1}, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle, d, M(G)\right)$. Thus $\mathrm{L}(B)=-1+L+\mathrm{L}\left(g_{1} T_{1} F_{1}\right), B \in \mathcal{P}(G, d, M(G))$, and $\mathrm{b}_{d}(G) \geq|S|$.
(2) The argument is quite similar to (1). We have $\left|G_{1}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{1}\right\rangle\right)-1$ and $\left|G_{2}\right|=\mathrm{a}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{2}\right\rangle\right)$; and we may assume that, for $i \in\{1,2\}$, there exists a sequence $T_{i} \in \mathcal{F}\left(\left\langle G_{i}\right\rangle \backslash G_{i}\right)$ with $\left|T_{i}\right|=\mathrm{b}_{d}\left(\left\langle G_{i}\right\rangle\right)$ such that $\Omega\left(G_{i}, T_{i}, l_{i}\right) \subset$ $\mathcal{P}\left(\left\langle G_{i}\right\rangle, d, M(G)\right)$ for some $l_{i} \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $g_{i} \in G_{i} \backslash\{0\}, S=\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right) T_{1} T_{2}$ and $l=\max \left\{l_{1}, l_{2}\right\}$; we assert $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}(G, d, M(G))$. Again, for $B=$ $S F_{1} F_{2} \in \Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right)$ with $F_{i} \in \mathcal{F}\left(G_{i}\right)$ consider $B^{\prime}=\left(g_{1}+g_{2}\right)^{-1} g_{1} g_{2} B$. Then $\mathrm{L}(B)=-1+\mathrm{L}\left(g_{1} T_{1} F_{1}\right)+\mathrm{L}\left(g_{2} T_{2} F_{2}\right)$. Thus, $\mathrm{L}(B)$ is an AAMP with period $\{0, d\}$ and it is not difficult to see that it is bounded by $M(G)$ (cf. [10, Section 4.2] for more general results of this form). Finally, since $\max \mathrm{L}(B)-$ $\min \mathrm{L}(B) \geq \max \mathrm{L}\left(g_{i} T_{i} F_{i}\right)-\min \mathrm{L}\left(g_{i} T_{i} F_{i}\right)$ we have $B \in \mathcal{P}(G, d, M(G))$.

Having the auxiliary results at hand, we deduce the theorem easily.
Proof of Theorem 1.3. (1) We assume $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+2$. First, we assume that $G$ is cyclic, and we have to show that $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)=0$. The argument is similar to the proof of Theorem 5.1. Let $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-2}(G)$, say $G_{0}=\{0, e,-e\}$ with ord $e=n$. Further, let $S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right)$. We may assume $|S|=1$, say $S=$ $g=a e$ with $a \in[2, n-2]$. Let $B=g e^{n-a}(-e)^{n}$. Then $\mathrm{L}(B)=\{2, n-a+1\}$. For every $l \in \mathbb{N}$, the set $\Omega\left(G_{0}, g, l\right)$ contains a block $B_{1}$ that is divisible by $B$. Thus $n-a-1 \in \Delta\left(\mathrm{~L}\left(B_{1}\right)\right)$ and $\mathrm{L}\left(B_{1}\right)$ is not an AAMP with period $\{0, n-2\}$. Consequently, $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)=0$ for cyclic $G$.

Conversely, we assume $G$ is not cyclic, and show that $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)>0$. If $G$ is an elementary $p$-group of rank 2 , it follows by the proof of Theorem $1.2(1)$ that we can apply Lemma $7.1(2)$, which implies $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)>0$. In any other case, it follows by the proof of Theorem $1.2(1)$ that there exists some $G_{0} \in \mathrm{~A}_{n-2}(G)$ that allows a decomposition $G_{0}=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ with $G_{2} \neq\{0\}$ half-factorial. Now, $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)>0$ by Lemma 7.1(1).
(2) We assume $n>\mathrm{m}(G)+3$. By Theorem 1.2(2) and Lemma 7.1 it suffices to show that $\mathrm{b}_{n-3}\left(C_{n}^{2}\right)>0$. Let $G_{0}=\left\{0, e_{1}, e_{2},-e_{1}-e_{2}\right\}$ with independent $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ and ord $e_{i}=n$. We assert that $\Omega\left(G_{0}, 2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}, l\right) \subset$ $\mathcal{P}(G, n-3, M)$ for sufficiently (depending on $M$ ) large $l$. The only atoms in $\Omega\left(G_{0}, 2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}\right)$ are $g^{\text {ord } g}$ for $g \in G_{0}, e_{1} e_{2}\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right),\left(2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}\right) e_{1}^{n-2} e_{2}^{n-2}$, and $\left(2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{2}$. Thus, the only minimal relations are $\left(2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}\right)$ $\cdot\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{2} \cdot e_{1}^{n} \cdot e_{2}^{n}=\left(2 e_{1}+2 e_{2}\right) e_{1}^{n-2} e_{2}^{n-2} \cdot\left(\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right) e_{1} e_{2}\right)^{2}$ and $\left(e_{1} e_{2}\left(-e_{1}\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.-e_{2}\right)\right)^{n}=e_{1}^{n} \cdot e_{2}^{n} \cdot\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)^{n}$, so the only possible distance is $n-3$, and the result follows.

We end with two examples, showing that the lower bounds of Lemma 7.1 can be sharp.

Example 7.2. (1) Let $n \geq 6$ be even and $G=C_{2} \oplus C_{n}=\left\langle e_{1}\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e_{2}\right\rangle$. By Theorem 1.2, $\mathrm{a}_{n-2}(G)=4$ and we need to consider $G_{0}=\left\{0, e_{1}, e_{2},-e_{2}\right\}$. Let $S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right)$ be such that $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}(G, n-2, M)$ for some $l \in \mathbb{N}$. From the argument for cyclic groups it follows that $\operatorname{supp}(S) \subset\left\{e_{1}+e_{2}\right.$,
$\left.e_{1}-e_{2}\right\}$. Without restriction we assume $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) \mid S$. Since each of the two blocks

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) e_{1}\left(-e_{2}\right) \cdot\left(e_{1}-e_{2}\right) e_{1} e_{2} & =\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)\left(e_{1}-e_{2}\right) \cdot e_{1}^{2} \cdot\left(-e_{2}\right) e_{2} \\
\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)^{2} e_{2}^{n-2} \cdot\left(-e_{2}\right)^{n} & =\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)^{2}\left(-e_{2}\right)^{2} \cdot\left(-e_{2} e_{2}\right)^{n-2}
\end{aligned}
$$

has $\{2,3\}$ as set of lengths, we have $\operatorname{supp}(S)=\left\{e_{1}+e_{2}\right\}$ and $\mathrm{v}_{e_{1}+e_{2}}(S)=1$. This implies $\mathrm{b}_{n-2}(G)=1$.
(2) Let $p \geq 5$ be a prime and $G=C_{p}^{2}=\left\langle e_{1}\right\rangle \oplus\left\langle e_{2}\right\rangle$. By Theorem 1.2, $\mathrm{a}_{p-2}\left(C_{p}^{2}\right)=5$ and we need to consider $G_{0}=\left\{0, e_{1},-e_{1}\right\} \cup\left\{e_{2},-e_{2}\right\}$. Let $S \in \mathcal{F}\left(G \backslash G_{0}\right)$ be such that $\Omega\left(G_{0}, S, l\right) \subset \mathcal{P}(G, p-2, M)$ for some $l \in \mathbb{N}$. From the argument for cyclic groups it follows that $\operatorname{supp}(S) \subset\left\{e_{1}+e_{2}, e_{1}-\right.$ $\left.e_{2},-e_{1}+e_{2},-e_{1}-e_{2}\right\}$. We assume $\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right) \mid S$. Since each of the four blocks

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{1}-e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{1}\right) e_{1}\left(-e_{2}\right) e_{2}, & \left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{1}+e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{1}\right) e_{1} e_{2}^{2 p-2} \\
\left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)\left(e_{1}-e_{2}\right)\left(-e_{2}\right) e_{2} e_{1}^{2 p-2}, & \left(e_{1}+e_{2}\right)^{2} e_{1}^{2 p-2} e_{2}^{2 p-2}
\end{array}
$$

has $\{2,3\}$ as set of lengths, we have $\operatorname{supp}(S)=\left\{e_{1}+e_{2}\right\}$ and $\mathrm{v}_{e_{1}+e_{2}}(S)=1$. This implies $\mathrm{b}_{p-2}(G)=1$.

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